

## Tree Equality: The Problem

Recall the tree data type we defined:

```
data LTree a = LLeaf a | LBranch (LTree a) (LTree a)
```

Suppose we want to write a function that determines if two trees are equal:

```
treeEq (LLeaf x) (LLeaf y) = x==y
treeEq (LBranch t1 t2) (LBranch s1 s2) =
  treeEq t1 s1 && treeEq t2 s2
treeEq _ _ = False
```

There are two problems:

1. What is its type?
2. We would like to overload == and not use the name treeEq.

# Operator Overloading: The Questions

Recall our previous story about numbers: we said

```
3 :: Integer
```

```
(+) :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
```

But this is obviously lying. For example, `+` also works with `Int`, `Rational`, `Float`, and `Double`. On the other hand, it does not work with lists. So we raise the questions:

- What is the actual type of `+` then? Is it polymorphic?
- How is this overloading implemented?
- Can we extend this overloading to my data types and my operators?

# Type Classes

All of the above problems and questions are resolved in Haskell by *type classes*.

- Conceptually, a type class represents a restricted set of types. (Contrast: a type variable represents the set of all types, unrestricted.)
- Pragmatically, a type class declares a few operators and functions for overloading.

E.g., `==` is declared in the type class `Eq`:

```
class Eq a where
    (==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

This says: For a type `a` that belongs to the class `Eq`, it has two operators: `==` and `/=` of type `a->a->Bool`.

## Type Instances: Declaration

You can put any data type into a type class, but you have to implement the operators.

Put it in another way: in order to overload an operator for your data type, you put it into the appropriate type class.

E.g., recall Tree:

```
data Tree = Leaf | Branch Tree Tree
```

Put it into class Eq:

```
instance Eq Tree where
  Leaf==Leaf = True
  (Branch t1 t2)==(Branch s1 s2) = t1==s1 && t2==s2
  _==_ = False
```

## Type Instances: Defaults

Note that we only implemented == but not /=. This is because Eq has default implementations:

```
class Eq a where
  (==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
  x == y      = not (x/=y)
  x /= y      = not (x==y)
```

If we only implement ==, the above code for /= will work, and vice versa.

So now we can compare trees:

```
Leaf /= Branch Leaf Leaf    --True
Branch Leaf Leaf == Branch Leaf Leaf    --True
```

## Types of Overloaded Operators

What is the type of `==` then? It ain't `a->a->Bool`, as `a` could be outside `Eq`.

Here it is:

```
(==) :: Eq a => a->a->Bool
```

It says: it is of type `a->a->Bool` assuming that `a` belongs to `Eq`.

Likewise, there is a class `Num` consisting of all numeric types, and we have:

```
(+) :: Num a => a->a->a
```

```
3 :: Num a => a
```

So `+` and `3` will work for `Int`, `Integer`, `Rational`, `Float`, `Double`, etc., because they all belong to `Num` (and they all implement `+` accordingly).

## Tree Equality: Solution

To overload == for LTree:

```
data LTree a = LLeaf a | LBranch (LTree a) (LTree a)
```

we need a prerequisite: a should belong to Eq first.

```
instance Eq a => Eq (LTree a) where
```

This says: LTree a belongs to class Eq provided that a already belongs to class Eq.

```
(LLeaf x)==(LLeaf y) = x==y
```

That is why we need the Eq a assumption.

```
(LBranch t1 t2)==(LBranch s1 s2) = t1==s1 && t2==s2  
_==_ = False
```

## Tree Equality: Solution 2

Could we still write `treeEq` and use it? Yes.

```
treeEq (LLeaf x) (LLeaf y) = x==y
treeEq (LBranch t1 t2) (LBranch s1 s2) =
  treeEq t1 s1 && treeEq t2 s2
treeEq _ _ = False
```

The type is

```
Eq a => LTree a -> LTree a -> Bool
```

You can then use it to define `==` for trees:

```
instance Eq a => Eq (LTree a) where
  (==) = treeEq
```



## Tree Equality: Solution 3

Probably 99% of your data types will have `==` defined in a similar fashion as the above.

Haskell can automatically generate such naïve definitions:

```
data LTree a = LLeaf a | LBranch (LTree a) (LTree a)
  deriving Eq
```

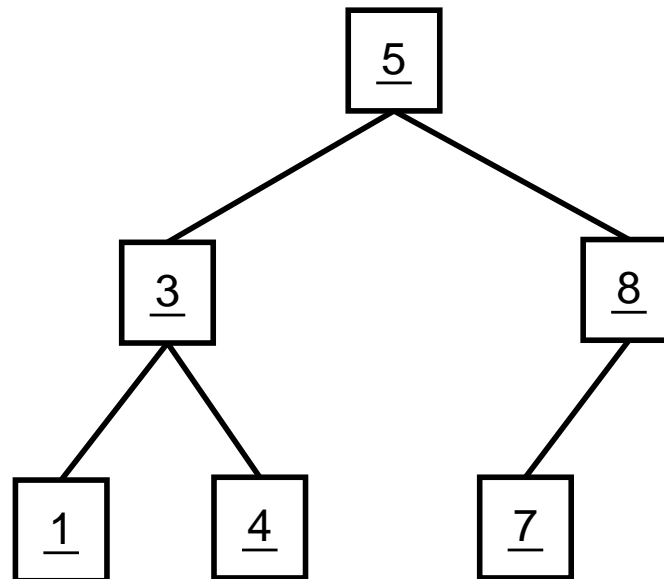
Then you immediately have `==` and `/=` defined for you the way above.

Another class, `Show`, is for types that can be printed. You can derive it and get the naïve printing too:

```
data LTree a = LLeaf a | LBranch (LTree a) (LTree a)
  deriving (Eq, Show)
```

# Binary Search Tree

We can now define polymorphic but restricted data types.  
E.g., let us define binary search trees.



The key in a node is greater than all keys in the left subtree, and less than all keys in the right subtree. For simplicity, we disallow duplicate keys.

## BST as Constrained Polymorphic Type

We wish to allow any type of keys, but the type must come with the `<` and the `>` operators. These come from the `Ord` class (for “ordered”):

```
class Eq a => Ord a where
  (<), (<=), (>=), (>) :: a->a->Bool
  ...
```

It declares the comparison operators. It also requires the type to belong to `Eq` first.

Now we can define our polymorphic binary search tree:

```
data Ord a => BST a = Nil | Node a (BST a) (BST a)
```

We require the key type to come from the `Ord` class. For simplicity, keys go into internal nodes, and “null pointers” are modelled by `Nil`.

## BST Operations

The membership operation: does a key occur in the tree?

```
member :: Ord a => a -> BST a -> Bool
member key Nil = False
member key (Node x t s) | key < x = member key t
                        | key > x = member key s
                        | key == x = True
```

The insert operation: add a key to a tree, returning the new tree.

```
insert :: Ord a => a -> BST a -> BST a
insert k Nil = Node k Nil Nil
insert k n@(Node x t s) | k < x = Node x (insert k t) s
                        | k > x = Node x t (insert k s)
                        | otherwise = n
```